

RAPID REVIEW

Summary—Period 3: 600 to 1450 C.E.

1. Similar to Periods 1 and 2 (up to 600 C.E.), Period 3 (600 to 1450 C.E.) witnessed a tremendous growth in long-distance trade due to improvements in technology. Trade through the Silk Road, the Indian Ocean, the Trans-Saharan routes, and the Mediterranean Sea led to the spread of ideas, religions, and technology.
2. Major technological developments such as the compass, improved shipbuilding technology, and gunpowder shaped the development of the world.
3. The movement of people greatly altered our world. Nomadic groups such as the Turks, Mongols, and Vikings, for instance, interacted with settled people—often because of settled people's technology—leading to further change and development.
4. Religions such as Islam, Christianity, and Buddhism preached the equality of all believers in the eyes of God. And though patriarchal values continued to dominate, the monastic life of Buddhism and Christianity offered an alternative path for women.
5. The spread of religion, aided by the increase in trade, often acted as a unifying force, though it sometimes caused conflict. Christianity and the Church served as the centralizing force in Western Europe, and throughout East Asia, the spread of Confucianism and Buddhism solidified a cultural identity. The new religion of Islam created a new cultural world known as Dar al-Islam, which transcended political boundaries.
6. The political structures of many areas adapted and changed to the new conditions of the world. Centralized empires like the Byzantine Empire, the Arab Caliphates, and the Tang and Song dynasties built on the successful models of the past, while decentralized areas (Western Europe and Japan) developed political organization that more effectively dealt with their unique issues. The movements of the Mongols altered much of Asia's political structure for a time, and the recovery from the Mongol period introduced political structures that defined many areas for centuries to follow.

Key Topics—Period 3: 600 to 1450 C.E.

Remember that the AP World History exam tests you on the depth of your knowledge, not just your ability to recall facts. While we have provided brief definitions here, you will need to know these terms in even more depth for the AP exam, including how terms connect to broader historical themes and understandings.



"New" Empires

- **Byzantine empire:** Formerly the eastern half of the Roman Empire, this Christian (Eastern Orthodox) empire controlled the Eastern Mediterranean Basin from the Fall of Rome to the Ottoman takeover nearly 1,000 years later (474–1453 C.E.).
- **Islamic Caliphates:** In the Islamic world, the states controlled by caliphs, or successors of Muhammad.

Chinese Empire

- **Grand Canal:** Begun in the fourth century B.C.E., construction resumed in 605 C.E. in China. This canal, the world's longest, connected the fertile Huang He River to the highly-populated cities in the north, allowing grain to be shipped easily.
- **Neo-Confucianism:** As trade expanded into China, Buddhism was introduced. Neo-Confucianism, popular during the Tang Dynasty, fused elements of Buddhism and Confucianism.
- **Fast-ripening rice:** Introduced to China from Vietnam during the Tang Dynasty, this crop allowed the Chinese to have two harvests per year, dramatically improving output; combined with an improved infrastructure, this crop led to a significant growth of the Chinese population.

Korea

- **Mongols:** Group of Central Asian nomads from Mongolia who, under the leadership of Genghis Khan, conquered large portions of the Asian continent. Their four empires, centered on Russia, China, Persia, and the Central Asian steppes, were led by Khan's successors, ensuring a century of peace from approximately 1250–1350 C.E.

Islamic Caliphates

- **Mecca:** Located in Saudi Arabia, it is considered the holiest city in Islam, as it is the birthplace of the Prophet Muhammad. A relic known as the Ka'ba ("Black Stone") made it a pilgrimage site before the emergence of Islam. Today, it is the focal point of the hajj, a trip to Mecca that every Muslim must make during his or her lifetime.
- **Muhammad:** An Arabian merchant (570–632 C.E.) who, after a revelation from the archangel Gabriel, began preaching a new religion called Islam. His followers quickly spread the new faith throughout Arabia during the last 10 years of his life.
- **Shi'a:** One of the two main branches of Islam. Shi'a rejects the first three Sunni caliphs and regards Ali, the fourth caliph, as Muhammad's first true successor.
- **Sunni:** One of the two main branches of Islam, commonly described as orthodox, and differing from Shi'a in its understanding of the Sunnah and in its acceptance of the first three caliphs.
- **Al-Andalus:** Located in modern-day Spain, this Islamic state thrived in the 700s C.E. Led by the Berbers, this state was renowned for its achievements in science, mathematics, and trade.

← The Pax Mongolica

- **Umayyads:** Royal clan who took control of the first caliphate in 661 C.E. Their rule was hereditary. Under their rule, a dominant military rapidly expanded the empire, an efficient bureaucracy governed each territory, and subjected peoples were tolerated. The Umayyads' love of money, though, caused the Abbasids to overthrow them in 750 C.E. 661-750
- **Astrolabe:** Introduced to the Islamic world in the 700s C.E., where it was perfected by mathematicians. Used by astronomers and navigators to determine latitude through inclination. look up? →
- **Trans-Saharan trade:** Starting in the 400s and 500s C.E., trade across North Africa thrived thanks to an organized network of camel caravans carrying gold, salt, cloth, slaves, and other valuables. This allowed the kingdoms of Ghana and Mali to thrive, and as Islam spread to Africa, allowed its teachings to impact the lives of kings and traders.

Decentralized States

- **Charlemagne:** Ninth-century king of the Franks who ruled over the Holy Roman Empire. Despite his best efforts, his attempts to unify large territories failed, and the feudal system allowed lords and vassals to struggle for power.
- **Feudalism:** Developed in response to Viking invasions, this system allowed medieval Western Europeans to create a political system based on loyalty. A lord, usually a nobleman, would protect his vassal in exchange for mandatory labor or military service. In return, the vassal would receive a fief, or grant of land.

Western Europe and the Crusades

- **Crusades:** Launched by Pope Urban II in 1095 C.E., these holy wars were called in an attempt for Christians to reclaim the Holy Land of Israel from Muslim "infidels." The four campaigns, lasting over 100 years, were unsuccessful but did stimulate European-Muslim trade and reintroduce Europeans to wisdom that had been last taught during the Classical period.

Europe during the High Middle Ages

- **Bills of exchange:** Known as *sakk* in the Islamic world and also used in China during this period, these forerunners of modern-day bank checks were written guarantees of payment; these helped facilitate trade.
- **Hanseatic League:** Collaborative organization of trade guilds founded in Germany in the 1200s C.E., it dominated Northern European trade for the next two centuries.

Nomadic Empires

- **Polynesians:** Indigenous to the distant islands of the Southwest Pacific Ocean, Polynesians used their geographic isolation to their advantage: they raised domesticated pigs and dogs, grew tropical fruit, and mastered seafaring to travel between islands.
- **Vikings:** Starting in the 800s C.E., these people from Scandinavia used their seafaring skill to terrorize Western Europe and settle in regions as far away as North America.

- **Seljuk Turks:** Central Asian nomads who converted to Islam around the year 1000 C.E. By 1055, they had overtaken the Abbasid Empire, and they overtook the Byzantine Empire in 1071, laying the foundation for Muslim rule in modern-day Turkey.

Mongols

- **Genghis Khan:** A Mongol clan leader who united the clans and made them the most feared force in Asia. Under his leadership, the Mongol Empire expanded greatly into China, Persia, Central Asia, and Tibet. His sons ruled the Four Khanates that followed, and his grandson, Kublai Khan, became leader of Yuan Dynasty China in 1279 C.E.

West African Kingdoms

- **Mansa Musa:** Ruling from 1312 to 1337 C.E., he is the most famous of the Mali emperors. His capital, Timbuktu, was a center of trade, culture, and education. He is most famous, though, for going on hajj to Mecca (a practice that few Muslims in his time actually did) carrying a large caravan with satchels of gold, which he used to fund schools and mosques across his empire.
- **Bantu:** Ancient peoples of West Africa who, starting around 2000 B.C.E., began a great migration to East and Central Africa. By encountering other Africans and Muslims, they adapted to their new surroundings and sustained their increasing population with the banana. Their language fused with Arabic to create Swahili, still spoken by many East Africans.
- **Swahili city-states:** As the Trans-Saharan trade dominated North and West Africa, East African trade was dominated by interchanges between Bantu and Arab mariners. Cities in present-day Somalia, Kenya, and Tanzania became bustling ports, and in an effort to facilitate trade, the Bantus created a hybrid language that allowed them to communicate with the Arabs. This language, Swahili, is still spoken by over 80 million East Africans.

Long-Distance Trade

- **Melaka:** Located in modern-day Malaysia, this port city became a waystation for sea traders from China and India in the fourteenth century. Melaka

Travelers

- **Ibn Battuta:** Islamic traveler who, in the fourteenth century, visited the kingdom of Mansa Musa in the Mali Empire. His writings stimulated an interest in African trade.
- **Marco Polo:** Venetian merchant who spent over 20 years travelling the Silk Roads through the Mongol Empire, where he actually served on the court of its ruler, Kublai Khan. His efforts, which were compiled in a book, stimulated interest in trade with China.

Spread of Disease

Bubonic Plague: Also known as the Black Plague, this disease spread from China to Europe through rats. By decimating Europe's population, the plague ended the feudal system and led many to question religion.

~~**European Developments**~~

~~**Renaissance:** Although Christian soldiers were unsuccessful in reclaiming the Holy Land, their exposure to Muslim advances in math, science, and the arts stimulated an interest in relearning Classical wisdom. In an age when the unexplained was attributed to God, this caused people to begin questioning the true nature of phenomena, leading Europe out of the "Dark Ages" and into a period of artistic and scientific self-discovery, particularly from the fourteenth through the sixteenth centuries.~~

next
unit

CHAPTER 9

Period 3: 600 to 1450 C.E. – Complete Time Period Review

“NEW” EMPIRES

After the fall of the Han and Roman Empires, a form of political centralization eventually returned in parts of the world: China, a new empire—the **Islamic Caliphates**, the **Byzantine Empire** (formerly known as the Eastern Roman Empire).

Chinese Empire

High-Yield 

Tang Dynasty

Political Development

Following the fall of the Han dynasty in 220 C.E., China returned to regional small kingdoms. It was not until 581 C.E. that the Sui dynasty reunited China proper. This short-lived but influential dynasty used Buddhism and the Confucian civil service system to establish legitimacy. In addition, Sui rulers initiated the construction of the Grand Canal, an economically vital series of waterways that linked the Yellow and Yangtze Rivers. They also launched numerous military campaigns to expand the Chinese Empire. Rebellions overthrew the Sui dynasty in 618 C.E., but it had laid the economic and military foundations for future dynasties.

The following Tang dynasty (618–907 C.E.), expanded China’s control to Tibet and Korea. A reformed civil service examination, which the Tang used to recruit bureaucratic officials, now admitted gentry and commoners. In the middle of the eighth century C.E., Tang power began to decline. Government corruption and increased taxation increased tension among the populace. Military governors had accumulated too much power relative to the central government. Numerous rebellions led to more independent regional rule, then the final collapse of the Tang dynasty in 907 C.E., and finally an era of rule by regional warlords—the “Five Dynasties and Ten Kingdoms” period.

Part 3 Complete Time Period Review

Economic Developments

Tang rulers had difficulty breaking the power of the large landowners. Nevertheless, China underwent an economic revolution under their rule. Farmers improved crop yields by utilizing new technologies, such as heavy iron plows and water buffaloes, and implementing elaborate irrigation practices. Farmers also took advantage of the Grand Canal's complex irrigation networks and an improved road networks. Because of these advances in agriculture and transportation, the Chinese population grew dramatically, until by 640 C.E. the Tang capital at Chang'an (modern-day Xi'an) had approximately one million inhabitants.

Trade with other countries flourished during the Tang dynasty. By establishing military garrisons as far out as western Afghanistan, trade was protected along the Silk Road. Due to trade along the Indian Ocean and the Silk Road, Chang'an became a major trading center and cosmopolitan hub; its West Market flourished with Indian, Iranian, Syrian, and Arab traders and their goods. The Chinese also invented many technologies during this period, such as the mechanical clock, gunpowder, lightweight porcelain, and steel, and they introduced such products to these systems of exchange.

Cultural Developments

Poetry flourished during the Tang dynasty, with poets such as Li Bai and Du Fu contributing to what has been dubbed a golden age. The invention of printing allowed literature to increase in popularity.

During the Sui and Tang dynasties, Buddhism and Daoism emerged as influential philosophies that challenged the traditionally dominant Confucianism. Early Tang rulers supported Buddhist monasteries and followed guidance from Buddhist advisors. However, later Tang rulers ceased to support Buddhism and even destroyed Buddhist monasteries. An anti-Buddhist campaign attacked this religion's foreign nature and its monasteries' economic and political power.

Neo-Confucianism, a remodeled form of Confucianism, developed in response to Buddhism and Daoism. It rejected mysticism in favor of a rationalist approach, emphasizing individual self-improvement and the goodness of humanity. Nevertheless, it also reworked some concepts and ideas from Buddhism. Neo-Confucianism dominated Chinese philosophy from the late Tang dynasty until the twentieth century C.E., and it spread to Japan, Vietnam, and Korea.

During the Tang dynasty, Chinese women were largely subordinate to men, and male children were preferred to female children. Women's marriages during the Tang dynasty were arranged within their own social class. However, women of higher status had comparably more rights than in most other dynasties. Some upper-class women could own property and even remarry. Princess Pingyang helped found her family's dynasty, the Tang, by personally recruiting and leading a force of 70,000 men dubbed "the Army of the Lady." They seized Chang'an, the Sui capital. One emperor's concubine, Empress Wu, even amassed her own personal power, until in 690 C.E. she took the title of Heavenly Empress. Concerned with any possible threat to her power, she had thousands of the emperor's concubines killed and had their sons banned from office. She also started a school dedicated to Buddhist and Confucian scholarship and supported Buddhist art.

note perspective

She wasn't mentioned much in your book but note what she did (and supported).

Influence

Neo-Confucianism moved to the forefront of Chinese philosophy and was also very influential in Japan and Korea. Delegations from the “outside,” such as Japan or Siam (present-day Thailand), had to show great deference to the Chinese emperor in his presence with the kowtow—a prostrate bow during which one touches one’s head to the ground multiple times. This symbolized the Chinese self-perception of being superior to all foreigners.

← note what it symbolized

Song Dynasty

Political Development

The founding of the Song dynasty is traditionally dated to 960 C.E., but it was not until 979 C.E. that it had reestablished centralized control over China, ending the “Five Dynasties and Ten Kingdoms” period. The civil service exam system retained great prominence during Song rule. It checked the power of the landed aristocracy and fostered the development of a powerful, moral elite known as the scholar-gentry.

The Song deemphasized a military approach to security and instead reestablished the tribute system with its nomad neighbors, in which the Chinese provided nomads with gifts in exchange for peace. Despite this system, peace did not endure. The Song’s scholar-controlled army was often ineffective, and an excess of paper money in circulation caused inflation. By 1126 C.E., China had lost the northern half of the empire to the semi-nomadic Jurchen. The Southern Song continued to flourish until 1274 C.E. However, military threats from the north continued, and finally the most powerful of all northern groups invaded, absorbing the Song dynasty into the new Mongol Empire in the thirteenth century C.E.

Economic Development

The economic revolution which began under the Tang dynasty continued under Song rule. Following Vietnamese agricultural practices, Chinese farmers began to cultivate fast-ripening rice, which improved crop yields. The population continued to increase, until it reached 115 million people in 1200 C.E. (as compared to 45 million people in 600 C.E.).

Technological innovation continued during Song rule as well. The capital of Kaifeng became a manufacturing center for cannon, movable type printing, water-powered mills, looms, and high-quality porcelain. After the Song lost control of Northern China, the Southern Song established their capital at Hangzhou, and commerce soared there as well. Ocean trade with East Africa, Southeast Asia, India, and Persia grew, especially due to naval innovations such as cotton sails and the magnetic compass. Because trade was so successful, copper supplies dwindled; paper currency and letters of credit—known as flying cash—emerged as forms of monetary compensation.

Part 3 Complete Time Period Review

Cultural Developments

During the Song dynasty, small feet became a beauty standard, leading to the practice of foot binding. Young girls had their toes and the arches broken, and then tightly bound in order to 'fold' each foot. These bandages were periodically changed and any necrotic tissue removed. By adulthood, these women were unable to walk without a cane. The small feet produced were also seen as a sign of wealth and status; it was impractical for peasant and middle-class women to work with bound feet. However, eventually foot-binding spread to all social classes. Opposition to foot binding would grow alongside the Taiping Rebellion (1850-1871 C.E.); the practice would be formally banned in 1912 C.E. but persist in some regions into the 1950s C.E. The last factory dedicated to making shoes for women with bound feet would close in 1999 C.E.

later units

Landscape painting flourished during the Song dynasty. This artwork was often influenced by Daoist beliefs. Fireworks, originating in the Tang dynasty, became increasingly popular with the masses.

✓ AP Expert Note

Tang and Song innovations included:

- Compass
- Water-powered clock
- Gunpowder
- Light porcelain
- Neo Confucianism
- Paper money
- Letters of credit (flying cash)
- Printing press with movable type

Korea

The Goguryeo–Sui War, a series of Chinese invasions of Korea that took place between 598 C.E. and 614 C.E., was pivotal in the collapse of the Sui dynasty. The war overextended the Sui dynasty during a famine. 300,000 Chinese troops died at the Battle of Salsu, history's most lethal battle in pre-modern warfare; this resulted in the perception that the Sui dynasty had lost the Mandate of Heaven.

In the seventh century C.E., China's Tang dynasty conquered the Goguryeo dynasty, which ruled the northern half of the Korean Peninsula. The Tang dynasty split the territory of the Goguryeo with Korea's Silla dynasty in the peninsula's south. The Silla were able to maintain much of their autonomy and oversaw a golden age for Korean culture.

In the tenth century C.E. the Koryo dynasty gained power in northern Korea. Its rulers modeled their kingdom after China and maintained their power until, in the thirteenth century C.E., the Mongols invaded.

600 to 1450 C.E.

Don't need to know names of these battles.

Japan

Political Development

Japan's geography as a group of islands led to the development of small, independent communities. By the 600s C.E., the Yamato clan exerted religious and cultural influence on other clans. Its leader, the prince Shotoku Taishi, strove to copy China's model of empire-building and create a strong, stable state. Yamato rulers began to call themselves emperors of Japan. They were unsuccessful in creating a centralized state, however, and Japan remained divided by its clans.

The Fujiwara clan, which dominated during the Nara Period (710–794 C.E.), sent emissaries to China and modeled their capital, Nara, on Chang'an. They could not, however, successfully introduce a Chinese-style bureaucracy, and a strict hereditary hierarchy developed instead.

In the Heian Period (794–1185 C.E.), the Japanese emperor installed the new capital of Heian (modern-day Kyoto). During this era, the weakness of Japan's centralized government led local aristocrats to recruit samurai. These warriors followed their lord's orders and defended his interests, and they developed a strict warrior code called *bushido* ("the way of the warrior").

After several centuries of civil conflicts, a Japanese noble, Minamoto no Yoritomo, created a form of feudal military government. Under this Kamakura Shogunate (1192–1333 C.E.), the emperor became a symbolic figurehead and the shogun, the supreme military general, controlled a centralized military government. The shogun divided Japanese land into regional feudal fiefdoms based on military power. Regional military leaders called daimyo led groups of samurai warriors. When the Mongols attempted to invade Japan in the thirteenth century C.E., they encountered this military and political system.

Economic Development

Japan was a predominantly agrarian society with an artisan class of weavers, carpenters, and ironworkers. Trade, which focused on markets in larger towns and foreign exchange with Korea and China, developed during the Kamakura Period.

Most Japanese people were peasants, who worked on land owned by a lord or by a Buddhist monastery. Though their freedom was limited, peasants could keep what remained of their harvest after they paid their tax quota. Those unable to pay became landless laborers known as *genin*, who could be bought and sold with the land. As slaves, they performed jobs such as burying the dead or curing leather; eventually, these jobs would be associated with the *burakumin* outcast group.

Cultural Development

In early Japan, people believed that *kami*—spirits—were present in their natural surroundings. These beliefs coalesced into the Shinto religion. People built shrines to honor *kami*, and Japanese emperors claimed to descend from the supreme Shinto deity, the sun goddess Amaterasu.

Although Shintoism remained a significant force in Japan, its society also welcomed Chinese and Korean influences. The Japanese people adopted Confucianism and Buddhism, as well as Chinese

Part 3 Complete Time Period Review

technology and script. Japan also developed its own version of Buddhism known as Zen Buddhism, which added a strong aesthetic dimension.

In early Japanese society, women could inherit or own land. Over time, however, women lost much of their legal and social power. Many women, however, such as Murasaki Shikibu, created literary works, including her famous novel *The Tale of Genji*.

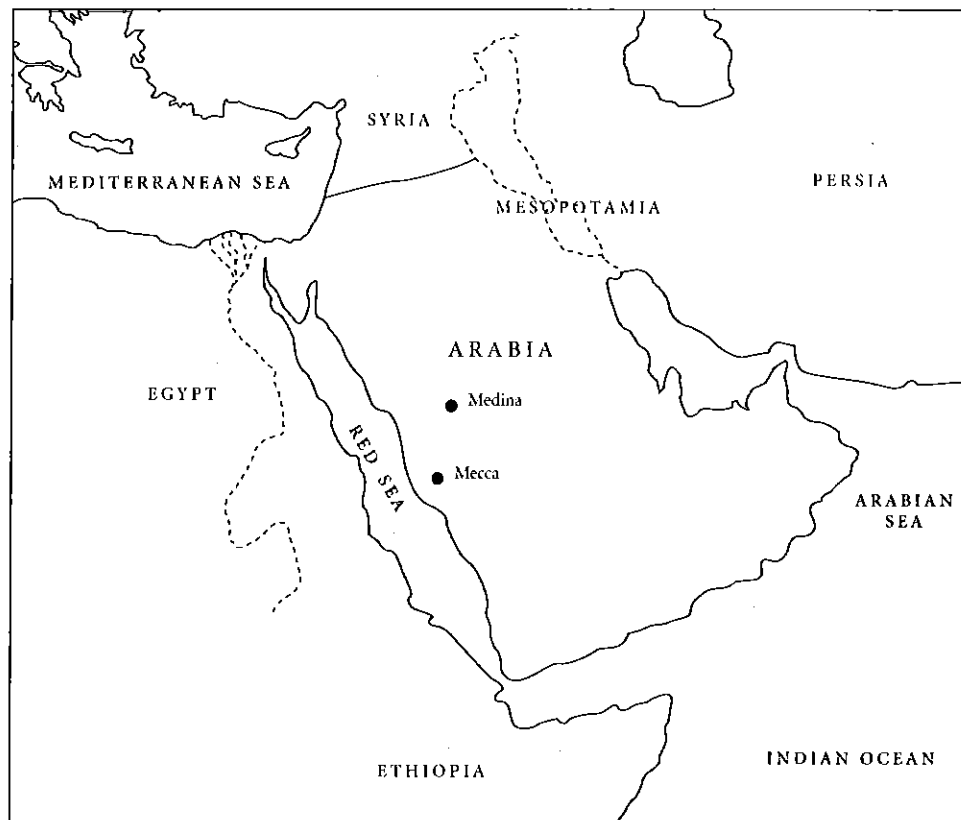
Islamic Caliphates

High-Yield

Pre-Islamic Arabia

Prior to the introduction of Islam, inhabitants of the Arabian Peninsula, or Bedouins, lived in nomadic tribes led by sheikhs. Settlements arose along trade routes, as Arabs transported products between the Mediterranean Sea and the Indian Ocean. Although patriarchy dominated Arabian social structures, women were allowed to inherit property, initiate divorce agreements, and participate in business dealings.

Most Arabs practiced a polytheistic form of religion which included a principal god, Allah, although idol worship of lesser deities was commonplace as Allah was viewed as a remote figure. This period is termed *Jahiliyyah* ("Times of Ignorance") in Islamic histories.



Arabia

600 to 1450 C.E.

Born in 570 C.E. in **Mecca**, **Muhammad** later married a merchant widow named Khadija. Together, they traveled on caravans and met Jews, Zoroastrians, and Christians. Muslims believe that the angel Gabriel revealed to Muhammad that he had been selected to be God's messenger.

Muhammad believed and preached that all people were to submit to one all-powerful, all-knowing God: Allah. All would face a final day of judgment; those who had submitted to God would go to a heavenly paradise, and those who had not would go to a fiery hell. He also taught that he was the last of a long line of prophets from the Jewish and Christian scriptures that included Abraham, Moses, David, and Jesus.

Muhammad's message was not met with enthusiasm in Mecca; he and his followers migrated to Medina in 622 C.E., on a journey known as the *Hegira* (or *Hijrah*). Muhammad's message proved popular in Medina, where he was viewed as a prophet and a political leader. In 630 C.E., after further organizing his new religion, he and his followers returned to Mecca, capturing the city.

After his death, Muhammad's revelations were written down by his followers in the Quran, which is believed to be the actual words of God as revealed to Muhammad. The word Islam means "submission to Allah."

Five Pillars of Islam

Islam is based on five duties—called pillars—that define the faith:

1. Statement of faith: "There is no god but Allah, and Muhammad is the messenger of Allah."
2. Pray five times a day facing Mecca.
3. Give alms (charity) to the poor.
4. Fast during the holy month of Ramadan.
5. Make a pilgrimage, or hajj, to Mecca during one's lifetime, if able.

Islam is a universal religion that promises salvation to all who believe and follow its principles. Islam appealed to women because the Quran afforded women equal status to men before God, outlawed female infanticide, and permitted wives to keep their dowries. However, the Quran also allowed inheritance to be restricted to male offspring. It also restricted women's social experiences in order to protect the legitimacy of offspring. In general, though, Islam appealed to the poor and powerless, and it fostered a strong sense of brotherhood.

Political Development

By the time of Muhammad's death in 632 C.E., much of Arabia was under Islamic control. However, Muhammad did not designate a successor, and Muslim followers disagreed over who Muhammad's successor should be. One group, the **Shi'a**, believed that the Muslim leader should be a descendant of Muhammad. The other group, the **Sunni**, believed that the wisest member of the strongest tribe should succeed Muhammad. Although Muhammad's father-in-law Abu Bakr was chosen to be the first caliph, and he served as the political and religious leader of the Arab Empire, the split between Shi'a and Sunni Muslims led to religious and political divisions in the Muslim world that endure today.

Part 3

Complete Time Period Review

600 to 1450 C.E.

After the first four caliphs, the Umayyad dynasty took control in 661 C.E. and transformed the caliphate into a hereditary monarchy, with its government centered in Damascus. With its military expertise and the weakness of the Byzantine and Persian Empires, the Umayyad dynasty continued to conquer additional territories—including Syria, Egypt, Persia, North Africa, Spain (which became known as **Al-Andalus**), and Byzantine territory in West Asia. The Umayyad caliphates set up a bureaucratic structure in which local administrators governed the conquered areas. All cultures were tolerated as long as they obeyed the rules of Islam, paid their taxes, and did not revolt. Arabic became the language of administration, business, law, and trade, and many conquered peoples converted to Islam.

The Abbasid dynasty overthrew the **Umayyads** in 750 C.E. and moved the imperial capital to Baghdad. At the time, Baghdad was the second largest city in the world next to Chang'an. The size of the Abbasid Empire made it difficult to control. Eventually, the remaining Umayyad prince settled in Spain and established a separate caliphate there. Berber tribesmen controlled much of the northern African coast, and the Mamluks revolted and gained control over Egypt from 1250 to 1517 C.E. Thus, by the mid-ninth century, the Abbasid political authority had become mostly symbolic, and the caliphate was broken into smaller states.

Despite this, the culture of the Muslim world created a common bond from Spain to many parts of Africa, the Middle East, Central and South Asia, and Southeast Asian islands. The term *Dar al-Islam* ("the home of Islam") refers to these areas in which a Muslim traveler or trader found himself welcome regardless of his homeland.

Economic Developments

Trade flourished throughout the caliphate and beyond, as Muslim merchants relied on a common set of principles. Improved irrigation led to increased agricultural production and tax revenue. Many types of agriculture, including sugarcane, citrus fruits, and coffee, spread throughout the Islamic empire. Artisans flourished in the cities, as urban areas became centers for manufacturing pottery, fabrics, and rugs. Paper, which was introduced from China, emerged as a form of currency.

Cultural Developments

Mosques, hospitals, and schools were built throughout the empire. Scholars developed intellectual fields such as algebra and medicine, and developed innovations such as the **astrolabe** and the concepts of latitude and longitude. Muslim scholars also reexamined the works of Greek philosophers such as Plato and Aristotle. Scholars at the House of Wisdom, built in Baghdad during the rule of the fifth Abbasid caliph Harun al-Rashid, sought out Greek and Persian texts and translated them into Arabic. One fourteenth century Moroccan geographer, Ibn Khaldun, wrote an economics, ethnography, world history, and sociology text called *Muqaddimah* or *Prolegomena* ("Introduction"). Universities were established in Cordoba, Toledo, and Granada. In art and architecture, geometric shapes known as arabesques and calligraphy replaced depictions of idols.

Influence

Even though the Muslim Empire declined and ended with the Mongol invasions, the influence of Islam continued to spread throughout the period. Islam spread to West Africa through **trans-Saharan trade**, to East Africa and Southeast Asia through Indian Ocean trade, to Central Asia and China through the Silk Road trade, and to India through the migrations of the Turks. By the conclusion of this period, *Dar al-Islam* had developed into one of the most dominant influences throughout the world.

Byzantine Empire

Political Development

The Byzantine Empire, a continuation of the Eastern Roman Empire, was the only survivor from the classical age. The Roman Empire had officially been divided into east and west in 375 C.E., with the western half severely weakened because of Germanic invasions along with several other factors.

The emperor Justinian, who ruled the Byzantine Empire from 527 C.E. to 565 C.E., tried and failed to reconquer Western Rome. However, Justinian's laws were a success. His *Body of Civil Law (Justinian's Code)* was based on the Roman *Twelve Tables of Law* and became the foundation of the Byzantine Empire's legal system. Justinian controlled both the political and religious power in his empire, and he also replaced Latin with Greek as the official language of the empire.

The Byzantine Empire's strong central government was a hereditary monarchy. It made law, had an efficient military, oversaw effective land distribution, and maintained a bureaucracy that answered to the emperor. The emperor was considered a friend and imitator of Christ. As the head of the Eastern Orthodox Church, the Byzantine emperor appointed the church's patriarch. The empire was divided into themes—or military districts—and military generals ruled local regions. Free peasants received land in exchange for military service.

The Byzantine military was not able to face the challenge of the Seljuk Turks, however, and it was largely destroyed by 1071 C.E. This defeat resulted in the loss of the empire's Asia Minor territories to the Turks.

Economic Developments

The Byzantine Empire's location on the Mediterranean Sea, along with its position as a crossroads between Asia and Europe, provided favorable avenues of trade. It developed a silk industry after silkworms were smuggled out of China. Byzantine artisans also produced glassware, linen, jewelry, gold, and silver.

Cultural Developments

Most subjects of the Byzantine Empire spoke Greek. Constantinople was the empire's intellectual center, with libraries containing Greek, Latin, Persian, and Hebrew texts. Constantinople also housed

Part 3

Complete Time Period Review

the Hagia Sophia, an elaborate cathedral which exemplified Byzantine art and architecture. Byzantine citizens theoretically had social mobility—through participation in the imperial bureaucracy, army, trade, or church—but individuals rarely changed their own social class.

The Eastern Orthodox Church continued to separate from Europe's Roman Catholic Church. The two churches disagreed over religious practices, such as the worship of idols (images of saints). The pope and patriarch excommunicated each other in 1054 C.E., and the two churches officially separated. The Eastern Orthodox form of Christianity later spread to the Slavic people and Russia.

DECENTRALIZED STATES

High-Yield

Western Europe—Early Middle Ages

Political Development

Compared to Byzantium, China, and the Islamic world, Western Europe remained politically decentralized following the decline and fall of the Western Roman Empire.

By 500 C.E., smaller German kingdoms had emerged. The Franks came closest to reestablishing imperial control, with the leadership of Clovis in the sixth century C.E. and the Carolingian Empire of **Charlemagne**, which lasted from 768 C.E. to 814 C.E. Both leaders used the Roman Catholic Church to strengthen their legitimacy, but they were unsuccessful in establishing a political structure that could outlast their reigns.

Instead, Europe developed a system of **feudalism**, in which lords gave lands to vassals in exchange for military service and loyalty. This system allowed various lords and vassals to compete for power, in the absence of central authority. The one centralizing power in this period was the Roman Catholic Church and its ruler, the pope; by the thirteenth century C.E., the Church owned approximately one-third of European land.

Economic Developments

The absence of a strong central authority led many peasants to seek protection on large estates. These peasants became serfs; they had the right to work a portion of the land and could pass that right onto their children, but they could not leave their land. Serfs could keep a portion of their harvests, but they sent the majority of their earnings to their lord. In addition, serfs paid taxes for using their lord's mill, provided labor during agricultural off-seasons, and sent gifts on holidays to their lords. Lords' estates became large, walled manors that were economically self-sufficient. They maintained mills, bakeries, and breweries. They had private armies served by knights. The introduction of the heavy plow increased agricultural production, allowing the cultivation of fertile clay soils, but the crop surplus was not substantial enough to sustain cities and towns in the early Middle Ages (the period from 500 to 1000 C.E.).

Cultural Developments

Birth largely determined one's social status. Marriage was the key to political power, and marital alliances were crucial to a family's continued social success. Women also entered convents, where some women could exercise leadership skills. Noblewomen had more power and authority than peasant women and could inherit land if they were widowed or without sons.

Beginning in the twelfth century C.E., a concept called chivalry developed. Chivalry stressed honor, modesty, loyalty, and duty. As warfare decreased, the concepts of chivalry incorporated courtly romance and knights' participation in tournaments. Chivalry, unlike its Japanese counterpart *bushido*, was more of an ideal than an actual code of conduct.

Christianity was the principal source of religious, moral, and cultural authority throughout Middle Ages, and strong papal leadership contributed to this authority. The Roman Catholic Church developed a strong hierarchy, which consisted of a pope, cardinals, archbishops, bishops, and priests. Monasteries, building complexes where monks dwelled, also developed throughout Europe. These sites often maintained large landholdings and served as refuges for individuals in need. Monks preserved classical knowledge by hand-copying great works of literature and philosophy.

COMPARATIVE CLOSE-UP: POLITICAL AND SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS IN EUROPE

	Western Europe	Eastern Europe
Political Institutions	Manor lords maintained local authority. Central authority was weak, and attempts at restoring it typically failed in the long run.	The Byzantine emperor had absolute power and was the centralizing authority. The emperor was also supported by a bureaucracy.
Social Institutions	The Roman Catholic Church was the social and cultural unifier. The pope was the spiritual head and strong centralizing figure. Latin was the church's language.	The Byzantine emperor and patriarch were co-heads of the Eastern Orthodox Church. Greek was the church's language.

WESTERN EUROPE AND THE CRUSADES

The **Crusades** were a series of Christian holy wars conducted against infidels—non-believers. The most significant crusade was a massive expedition led by the Roman Catholic Church to recapture Palestine, the land of Christian origins, from the Muslims. Pope Urban II launched the Crusades in 1095 C.E., when he urged Christian knights to take up arms and seize the Holy Land.

After the First Crusade, the Christians captured Edessa, Antioch, and Jerusalem, and divided that territory into feudal states. However, the disorganized Muslim forces reorganized under the leadership of Saladin and retook Jerusalem in 1187 C.E. The Fourth Crusade never made it to the Holy Land. The crusaders, supported by the merchants of Venice, conquered and sacked the Byzantine capital of Constantinople in 1204 C.E. This event severely weakened the Byzantine Empire.

Though the quest for the Holy Land was a failure, it led to great economic developments in Europe; it encouraged trade with Muslim merchants and increased the European demand for Asian goods. As a result, Italian merchants from cities such as Venice and Genoa greatly profited, and Europe was reintroduced to the goods, technology, and culture of the other regions.

EUROPE DURING THE HIGH MIDDLE AGES

As Europeans interacted with other regions, they adopted new agricultural techniques, such as the three-field system of crop rotation, and foreign agricultural technologies, such as iron plows, watermills, and horse harnesses. These innovations increased crop production and population sizes in Europe.

While the traditional feudal economy was solely based on agriculture in the countryside, a new pre-modern economy was evolving by 1100 C.E. During the early medieval period, the old Roman towns decreased in size. Now, after centuries of decline, increased trade began to stimulate the growth of commercial cities in the heart of Europe. Most often located on riversides, these towns grew into marketplaces and adopted foreign financial innovations, such as banks and **bills of exchange**. Some representative examples of these new urban centers included:

Bruges: Located on a river system that connected the North Sea with Central Europe along the Rhine River, its cross-channel trade brought raw wool from England which was converted into clothing to sell.

Hamburg: A major port on the North Sea. Hamburg was part of the **Hanseatic League**, an alliance of trading cities and their merchant guilds, which controlled trade along the Northern European coast. The League regulated taxes and created rules for fair trade among the member cities.

Florence: This central Italian city controlled the flow of goods through the peninsula. Called the Republic of Florence, this city-state became a center for banking and commerce by 1300 C.E.

Service providers and craftspeople set up businesses in these towns, further stimulating growth. Among those providing services were barbers, blacksmiths, coopers (barrel makers), jewelers, leatherworkers (tanners), innkeepers, and merchants of beer and wine. These cities began to plan their growth, regulate business, and collect taxes. Wealthy towns in Italy invested in new buildings and statuary for beautification.

NOMADIC EMPIRES

Nomadic and migrating peoples and contributed to the diffusion of technologies, ideas, agricultural techniques, and diseases between 600 C.E. and 1450 C.E. For instance, as **Polynesians** migrated between the scattered islands of Oceania, they introduced new foods and domesticated animals to the various islands. The nomadic **Vikings**, Turks, and Mongols also brought social, cultural, and economic changes to the regions that they encountered and perhaps conquered.

Vikings

The Vikings were a nomadic group which settled in present-day Scandinavia (Denmark, Norway, and Sweden). In order to supplement their farm production, they conducted seasonal raids into Europe and ransacked towns. Using small and maneuverable boats, the Vikings raided and terrorized coastal communities in France, Scotland, Ireland, and England. The Vikings eventually evolved from plunderers into traders, and they established communities in Scotland, northern France, and Eastern Europe.

These outstanding seafarers also traded actively throughout the North Sea and Baltic Sea. In the 800s C.E., they colonized Iceland and Greenland, and around 1000 C.E., they established a short-lived colony in Newfoundland (modern-day Canada). The transplanted Viking settlements in France became known as Normandy.

In 1066 C.E., a Norman lord named William from northern France invaded England with his army. He defeated the Saxons and established Norman power in what became modern-day Britain. Over time, the Normans and Vikings were Christianized and absorbed into the larger European feudal order.

✓ AP Expert Note

The Eurasian Steppe

Stretching from Eastern Europe to the Pacific Ocean, the Eurasian steppe was home to many nomadic tribes who would periodically invade the settled societies bordering the steppe. Prior to the refinement of gunpowder weapons, even small groups of steppe nomads were typically a fierce military force thanks to their expert horsemanship and use of mounted archers with composite bows.

Turks

The Turks, a pastoral nomadic group from the central Asian steppes, began to gradually migrate out of the steppes at the end of the first millennium. They were often hired by Muslim leaders as mercenaries. The **Seljuk Turks**, who had converted to Islam, invaded Abbasid territory and captured Baghdad in 1055 C.E. The caliph was left as the spiritual authority of the empire, but the Seljuk Sultan became the secular monarch. By 1071 C.E., the Seljuk Turks had defeated the Byzantine Empire and conquered most of Anatolia (modern-day Turkey).

Following the collapse of the Seljuk dynasty, a new Turkic body arose at the turn of the fourteenth century C.E., when a tribal leader named Osman founded the Ottoman Empire. The Ottomans would conquer Constantinople in 1453 C.E., bringing a final end to the Eastern Roman (Byzantine) Empire.

The Afghan Turks were nomads from Afghanistan. They began a series of raids into India in the tenth century C.E. They looted cities for gold and jewels and destroyed Hindu temples. It wasn't until the twelfth century C.E. that they started to govern after invading. This created the Delhi Sultanate, which ruled northern India from 1206 C.E. to 1526 C.E. The Afghan Turks introduced a strong Muslim presence in India.

MONGOLS

High-Yield

The Mongols were a pastoral, nomadic group from the central Asian steppe (modern-day Mongolia). These nomadic herders' lives revolved around their camels for transportation, their horses for mobility, and their sheep, goats, and yaks for food, clothing, and shelter. Their clan-based society was organized around bloodlines. The man born Temujin, later renamed **Genghis Khan**, successfully united the various Mongol tribes and created history's largest contiguous land empire.

The Mongols' greatest strength was their mobility. During wartime, every male from 15 years old to 70 years old had to serve. Each soldier was rewarded with captured goods and slaves. The Mongols' military strategy was also extremely effective; they were masters at psychological warfare and at feigning retreats. The Mongols were also skilled at using diplomacy to play enemies off one another and to weaken anti-Mongol alliances.

Once his troops were united, Genghis Khan led them into Central Asia, Tibet, Northern China, and Persia. In 1215 C.E., the Mongols attacked and destroyed Zhongdu (modern-day Beijing). The Mongols had relatively few defeats, but they failed to invade the Delhi Sultanate and Japan.

In 1227 C.E., the Great Khan died. While regional control was divided among his four sons in the form of khanates, supreme authority passed to his son Ögedei. However, by 1259 C.E. infighting over succession to the position of Great Khan led to civil war and then fragmentation of the Mongol Empire. In total, the Mongol conquests were the fourth deadliest span of warfare in human history, with conservative estimates placing the death toll at 30 to 40 million people, roughly ten percent of the world's population at the time.

Mongol Rule in China: The Yuan Dynasty

In 1279 C.E., Genghis Khan's grandson, Kublai Khan, conquered the Southern Song dynasty. For the first time, China was under foreign rule. Kublai Khan created a Chinese-style dynasty, taking the name Yuan, and maintained a fixed and regular tax payment system and a strong central government. Foreigners, not Chinese, were employed in most bureaucratic positions and the civil service exam was no longer used. The Chinese were subject to different laws and were consciously separated from the Mongols.

In time, overland and maritime trade flourished. Though the Mongols were not directly involved in the trade, they welcomed merchants and foreigners. Merchants converted their foreign currency into paper money when they crossed into China. Under Mongol rule, China prospered and the Mongol capital Khanbaliq developed into a flourishing city.

The Mongol rulers only achieved a limited level of popularity among their Chinese subjects, due to both their discriminatory practices and high taxes. The Red Turban Rebellion (1351–1368 C.E.) would see the Chinese overthrow their Mongol conquerors. Zhu Yuanzhang, a peasant turned Red Turban commander, would found the Ming dynasty (1368–1644 C.E.).

Mongol Rule in Korea

When the Mongols conquered Korea in the thirteenth century C.E., the Koryo dynasty maintained their local rule, with Korean kings marrying Mongol princesses. However, by the 1350s, with Yuan dynasty destabilizing, the Koreans expelled Mongol garrisons.

After the Mongols were overthrown in China, the Koryo dynasty lost power in Korea and the Joseon dynasty (1392–1897 C.E.) emerged.

Mongol Rule in the Middle East: The Ilkhanate

In 1258 C.E., Kublai's brother Hülegü Khan defeated the Abbasid Caliphate, conquered Mesopotamia and Persia, and burned the city of Baghdad, destroying its famed House of Wisdom. Over time, these Mongols converted to Islam and began to mix with their conquered populations. The conquered populations' local rulers were permitted to rule, as long as they delivered tax revenue and maintained order. Though the Mongols did not support agriculture, they did facilitate trade.

As the Mongols continued west, they were defeated in 1260 C.E. by the armies of the Mamluk dynasty (also known as the Slave dynasty) in Egypt.

Mongol Rule in Russia: The Golden Horde

During the centuries before the Mongol invasion, Russia was dominated by feudalism. The princes of Kiev, which also controlled the Russian Orthodox Church, ruled according to the legal principles that the Byzantine emperor Justinian had created.

When the Mongol ruler Batu Khan conquered and ruled Russia, he created the Mongol khanate called the Golden Horde. Batu Khan allowed many local rulers to keep their power, and Russian bureaucrats collected peasants' taxes, which were heavy during this time. Batu Khan's Mongol descendants constituted the upper social classes of the Golden Horde.

The Russian rulers of Muscovy, a territory north of Kiev, gained more control during Mongol rule by closely associating themselves with their Mongol rulers. The Mongols maintained control until Prince Ivan III effectively ended their rule in 1480 C.E. and formed the Russian state.

Pax Mongolica

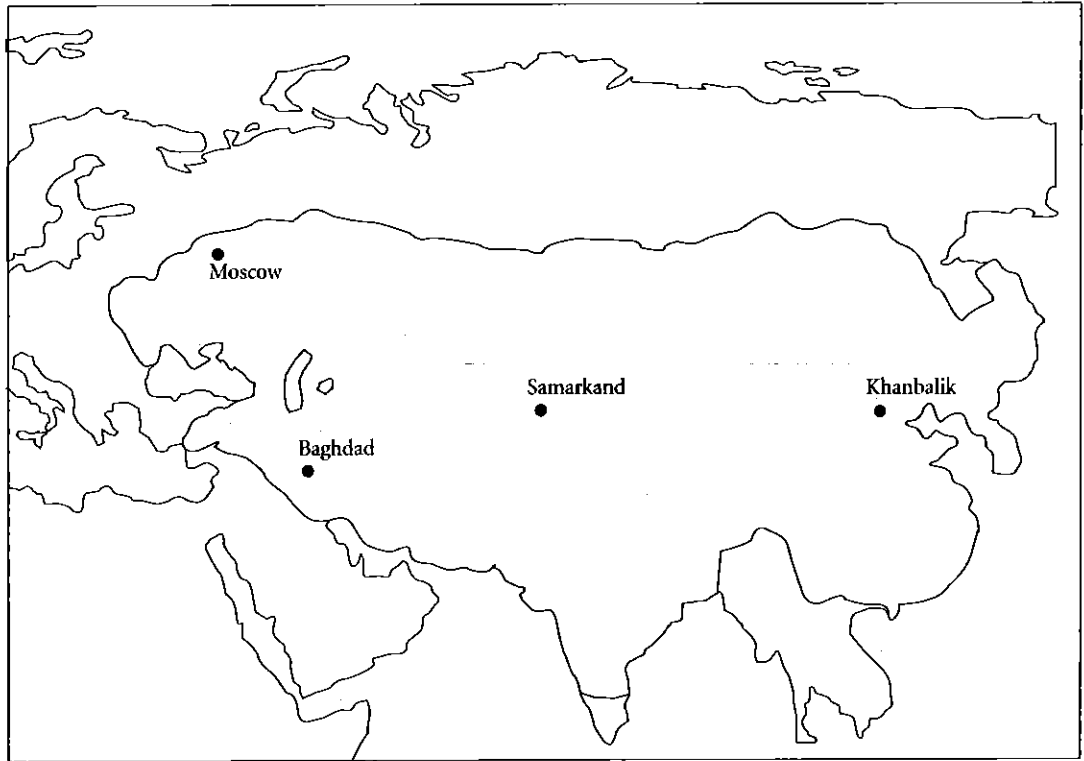
Although Mongol invasions initially interfered with trade and peace, a period called the Mongol Peace (or *Pax Mongolica*) lasted during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries C.E., when vast areas of Eurasia were under Mongol rule. For about a century, Mongol rule united two continents and eliminated tariffs, which allowed for relatively safe trade and contacts between vastly different cultures.

Part 3

Complete Time Period Review

During this period, the Silk Road trade reached its peak. Paper money—a Chinese innovation—was used in many parts of the Mongol Empire. The Mongols often adopted or converted to local religions, or at least maintained religious tolerance.

600 to 1450 C.E.



Mongol Conquests

Mongol Decline

In 1274 C.E. and 1281 C.E., the Mongols tried to expand their empire again by invading Japan. However, typhoon winds destroyed their fleets both times. The Japanese believed that the kamikaze, or “spirit winds,” had protected them.

Despite great military accomplishment, the Mongol Empire lasted for only three or four generations. The Mongols were successful conquerors but poor administrators. Overspending led to inflation in different regions of the empire, and after the death of Kublai Khan, leadership was weak and ineffectual. Rivalry among the great Khan’s potential successors further destabilized the empire, and the vast domain was divided among various generals. By 1350 C.E., most of the Mongols’ vast territory had been reconquered by other armies and the Mongols had largely assimilated into the societies that they had invaded.

WEST AFRICAN KINGDOMS

Ghana

The Ghana Empire, or Awkar, began as a series of interconnected agricultural villages along the Niger River. It became heavily involved with trans-Saharan trade around 500 C.E., as Ghana had abundant supplies of gold that it traded for salt. Its kings controlled and taxed the gold trade. Ghana's merchants also traded with Berbers (nomadic peoples from North Africa who often used camel caravans for transportation) and Arab merchants from North Africa for Mediterranean items such as cloth, weapons, and manufactured items.

As Ghana's wealth and power increased, it built a large army funded by taxes. In the 900s C.E., the kings, elites, and traders converted to Islam, which led to improved relations with Muslim merchants. Ghana's kings did not force their people to adopt Islam, however, and traditional animistic beliefs endured among a minority.

Around 1076–77 C.E., northern Berbers and other tribal groups assaulted and weakened the Ghana Empire. Ghana was eventually absorbed by the growing West African kingdoms, especially the Mali Empire.

Mali

Sundiata Keita established the Mali Empire in 1230 C.E., but it was not until his victory at the Battle of Kirina in 1235 C.E. against the rival Sosso that he cemented his nation's place as the strongest West African state during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries C.E. The poem known as *The Epic of Sundiata* describes how Sundiata Keita founded Mali. This poem exemplifies African oral traditions; it was composed and recited by Mali *griots* (storytellers).

Although most people in Mali were engaged in agriculture, the kingdom of Mali prospered from its participation in the trans-Saharan trade in gold and salt. The kings of Mali controlled and taxed trade within their territories. Local Mali rulers served in religious and economic roles; they honored Islam, provided protection and lodging for merchants, and ensured that the kings of Mali received their tax income. The people of Mali were encouraged, but not forced, to convert to Islam.

Mansa Musa ruled Mali from 1312 C.E. to 1337 C.E. A devout Muslim, Mansa Musa fulfilled one of the five pillars of faith and went on a pilgrimage, or *haji*, to Mecca. He brought thousands of soldiers, attendants, subjects, and slaves with him, as well as hundreds of camels carrying satchels of gold. Mansa Musa created a period of inflation, which affected many regions along major trade routes, because he distributed so much gold to other peoples during his journey. Inspired by his travels, Mansa Musa built libraries, Islamic schools, and mosques throughout the kingdom. Timbuktu became Mali's political capital and West Africa's cultural center of Islamic scholarship and art.

Following 1350 C.E., after a series of kings that spent lavishly and misruled, provinces began to assert their independence and separate from the Mali Empire, and its power and influence declined.

Part 3

Complete Time Period Review

Northeastern African Kingdoms

Many inhabitants of North Africa converted to Islam after 700 C.E. as Arab travelers spread their religious beliefs. Christianity also endured, however, especially in Egypt and Ethiopia. Ethiopia evolved into a kingdom with strong Christian traditions. Coptic Christianity stayed popular in Ethiopia, and in Egypt a minority of Coptic Christians remained even after the introduction of Islam.

East African City-States

East Africa was populated by peoples who spoke **Bantu** languages and had migrated centuries earlier from the Niger River territory. These Bantu peoples settled in cities along the East African coast.

Although they did not politically unite to form kingdoms, individual city-states such as Mogadishu, Kilwa, and Sofala prospered from participating in Indian Ocean trade with Muslim merchants during the seventh and eighth centuries C.E. In the 900s C.E., Islamic merchants traded gold, slaves, and ivory for pottery, glass, and textiles from Persia, India, and China. As East Africans associated with Arab traders, the Swahili language (which mixes Bantu and Arabic) developed. Because of this, East African city-states are often called **Swahili city-states**.

Much like Ghana and Mali, these powerful city-states were governed by kings. When they converted to Islam for legitimacy and alliances, the kings ruled as caliphs and taxed and controlled the trade. They built stone mosques and public buildings in their cities. The ruling elite and wealthy merchants of East Africa often converted to Islam but did not completely separate from their own religious and cultural traditions.

In Southeastern Africa, the kingdom of Zimbabwe prospered from participating in trade with East Africa's city-states. In eleventh century C.E., its inhabitants created the Great Zimbabwe, a city of stone towers, palaces, and public buildings. Zimbabwe prospered between 1300 C.E. and 1450 C.E.

LONG-DISTANCE TRADE

High-Yield

The volume of long-distance trade dramatically increased between 600 C.E. and 1450 C.E. Luxury items of high value, such as silk and precious stones, were typically transported over land routes. Merchants used sea routes to transport bulkier commodities, such as steel, stone, coral, and building materials.

The Silk Road trade linked the Eurasian land mass. Trans-Saharan trade connected West Africa to the Mediterranean and Islamic Empire. The Indian Ocean trade linked China, Southeast Asia, India, Arabia, and East Africa. The Mediterranean Sea trade linked Europe with goods from the Islamic Empire and Asia.

Because of this global exchange, and because of increased agricultural productivity and slightly warmer global temperatures between 800 C.E. and 1300 C.E., cities located along trade routes grew substantially. For instance, **Melaka**, a city on the coast of the Malay Peninsula in Southeast Asia, served as an important port city on the Indian Ocean. It became the Sultanate of Melaka,

an Islamic state, as Muslim traders settled into the region and spread Islam in the early fifteenth century C.E. Melaka maintained a safe environment for trade, welcomed merchants, and charged reasonable fees. As a result, it thrived in this interconnected world, along with cities like Hangzhou in China, Samarkand in Central Asia, Baghdad in modern-day Iraq, Kilwa in East Africa, Venice in Italy, and Timbuktu in Mali, Africa.

Although cities generally increased in size between 600 C.E. and 1450 C.E., military invasions, diseases, and reduced agricultural productivity caused some cities to experience periods of significant economic decline.

Merchants set up their own communities, where they often influenced the dominant culture along trade routes. For example, Muslim merchants in the Indian Ocean region, Chinese merchants in Southeast Asia, and Jewish merchants in the Mediterranean settled in diaspora communities in trade cities.

MISSIONARY CAMPAIGNS

Buddhism

Along the Silk Road, Buddhism traveled to Central Asia and adapted into variants which included polytheism. In Tibet, it became popular as it combined shamanism and the importance of rituals. In East Asia, monks, merchants, and missionaries adapted Buddhism to the political ideas of Confucianism by including Daoist ideas, an emphasis on family, and ancestor worship.

Particularly during chaotic times, Buddhism appealed to people as an avenue toward personal salvation. Chinese Buddhism spread to Korea, where it received royal support, and to Japan. In Japan, Shinto leaders initially resisted Buddhism. Eventually, syncretism (the fusion of differing systems of beliefs) occurred after Buddhism blended into the worship of Shinto divinities.

Because Buddhism lacked an organized Church, it could merge with local people's ideas. However, Buddhism was often replaced by more organized religions. In Central Asia, for instance, Islam eventually replaced Buddhism as the dominant religion. In China, the Tang dynasty stopped supporting Buddhism in the ninth century C.E.

Christianity

Like Buddhism, Christianity emerged as a missionary religion. When the Western Roman Empire was declining, missionary efforts turned toward Northern Europe. The Western Church and the pope sponsored missionary campaigns aimed at converting the Germanic people. The Eastern Orthodox Church also spread Christianity to Eastern Europe and Russia.

Syncretism aided the spread of Christianity. Pagan heroes or holy figures, such as the saints, were seen as mediators between God and his people. Polytheistic holidays were incorporated into Christianity, and Christians placed Christmas on the same day as the pagan winter solstice celebration.

Part 3 Complete Time Period Review

In Asia, Nestorian Christianity—the belief that Jesus existed as two distinct entities, mortal man and divine figure—spread to Mesopotamia and Persia, where Islamic conquerors allowed Christians to practice their religion. Merchants also spread Nestorian Christianity as far as India and China, but they received little or no support from local rulers.

Islam

Islam spread through three main avenues: military conquest, trade, and missionary activity. Once Islam was introduced through one of those avenues, the religion spread because of its tolerance for other beliefs, its simple principles, and its emphasis on charity and spiritual equality. Also, Muslim rulers often levied a special tax against non-Muslims, which provided an economic incentive for conversion.

In sub-Saharan Africa, merchants introduced Islam to the ruling class through trade, and syncretism occurred. The kings still held a divine position, and women continued to have a prominent place in society, as was the local custom. In East Africa, Islam arrived via the Indian Ocean, where it mixed Arabic and African languages to create Swahili. In India, Turks brought Islam to the region in the eleventh century when they formed the Delhi Sultanate and used Hindu stories with Muslim characters, attracting both warriors and low-caste Hindus.

The Sufis were the most active missionaries after 900 C.E., spreading Islam to Southern Europe, sub-Saharan Africa, Central Asia, India, and Southeast Asia.

AGRICULTURAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL DIFFUSION

High-Yield

The increase in global interaction through this time period led to the spread of agriculture and technology, and great changes throughout the world.

Origin	Diffusion	Effect
Magnetic compass from China	Europe via the Indian Ocean trade	Increase in maritime trade and exploration
Sugarcane from Southwest Asia	European Crusaders	Increases in Mediterranean island plantations and increases in slave labor
Gunpowder from China	Persia, the Middle East, and eventually Europe by the Mongols	Advances in weapon technology

Travelers

The tremendous amount of long-distance interaction in this period can be illustrated through the travels of three individuals: a Muslim scholar (**Ibn Battuta**), an Italian merchant (**Marco Polo**), and a Nestorian Christian priest (Rabban Sauma). Each traveler recorded his observations during his journeys.

	Ibn Battuta 1304–1369	Marco Polo 1253–1324	Rabban Sauma 1225–1294
Background	Muslim scholar from Morocco	Italian merchant from Venice	Nestorian Christian priest from Mongol Empire in China
Places traveled	Throughout Dar al-Islam: West Africa, India, Southeast Asia	Throughout the Silk Road to the Mongol Empire in China.	Began pilgrimage to Jerusalem in Beijing, but diverted when sent by Mongol Ilkhan of Persia to meet with kings of France and England and the pope to negotiate alliances against Muslims.
Significance	Found government positions as a <i>qadi</i> , or judge, throughout the lands he traveled. Demonstrated the widespread influence of Islam and increased European interest in Eastern goods.	Allowed by Kublai Khan to pursue mercantile and domestic missions throughout the empire. Increased European interest in goods from the East.	Did not succeed in attracting the support of Christian Europe to the Mongol cause. Europeans never conquered the Middle East, but instead went around it to reach the Indian Ocean.

Spread of Disease

In addition to religions, technologies, and goods, diseases spread along trade routes. Carried by infected rodents and fleas, the Black Death (**bubonic plague**) spread from the Yunnan region of southwest China. In the 1340s C.E., Mongols, merchants, and travelers spread the disease even farther along the trade routes west of China. Oasis towns, trading cities of Central Asia, Black Sea ports, the Mediterranean Sea, and Western Europe were all affected. Some scholars estimate that as many as 100 million people, out of a world population of 450 million, died. A third of Europe's population died in the first five years of the plague.

This seemingly apocalyptic event led to many social changes. In Western Europe, for example, the resulting labor shortage led to workers demanding higher wages. Peasants rebelled, weakening the feudal system. Antisemitism led to Jews being scapegoated for the plague, and many Jewish communities were massacred. Christians questioned their faith amid all of the death and seemingly senseless destruction. Self-flagellation (whipping oneself) became popular as a way for people to atone for their apparent sins. The Roman Catholic Church lost much of its seasoned clergy to the plague, and their replacements often lacked proper education and literacy as standards were lowered by necessity.

RECOVERY AND RENAISSANCE IN ASIA AND EUROPE

High-Yield

Chinese Developments

In 1368, the Mongol Yuan dynasty collapsed and Emperor Hongwu started the Ming dynasty. Hongwu eliminated evidence of Mongol rule, reinstated the Confucian education system and civil service exam, and tightened central authority. The Ming relied on mandarins, a class of powerful officials, to implement their policies on the local level. They also conscripted laborers to rebuild irrigation systems; as a result, agricultural production increased. Though the Ming did not actively promote trade, private merchants traded manufactured porcelain, silk, and cotton.

The Ming dynasty strongly promoted Chinese cultural traditions and established Neo-Confucian schools which stressed Confucian values such as self-discipline, filial piety, and obedience to rulers. They also funded projects that emphasized Chinese cultural traditions, such as the Yongle Encyclopedia. This encyclopedia was the largest general encyclopedia of its time, and it covered a wide array of subjects, including agriculture, art, astronomy, drama, geology, history, literature, medicine, natural sciences, religion, and technology. More than 2,000 scholars contributed to its development. Increased printing contributed to the growth of popular culture. The Ming dynasty saw three of the "Four Great Classical Novels" of Chinese literature published: *The Water Margin*, *Romance of the Three Kingdoms* and *Journey to the West*. The often banned yet landmark work *The Plum in the Golden Vase* also saw publication.

✓ AP Expert Note

Romance of the Three Kingdoms

"The world under heaven, after a long period of division, tends to unite; after a long period of union, tends to divide. This has been so since antiquity." - opening lines

Perhaps the most widely-read novel in both late imperial and modern China, and culturally influential throughout East Asia, *Romance of the Three Kingdoms* is an 800,000-word epic. It has been adapted in everything from operas, to comics, to video games like *Dynasty Warriors*. The story opens with the Yellow Turban Rebellion at the twilight of the Han dynasty, and it follows a sprawling cast during the Three Kingdoms period as they battle over whose faction will reunite China.

Jesuit missionaries such as Matteo Ricci arrived in China, introducing European science and technology. However, the Jesuit goal of converting the Chinese population to Christianity proved to be unsuccessful.

European Developments

By the 1400s C.E., the regional states in Europe were developing into monarchies. These monarchies were strong enough to tax citizens directly and maintain large standing armies. Italy, Milan, Venice, and Florence benefited greatly from increased trade, which increased tax revenues and their governments' authority.

Kings in France and England began to successfully assert their authority over their feudal lords. In Spain, Fernando of Aragon and Isabella of Castile married and united Spain by reconquering the lands

formerly controlled by Muslims. The competition among these states led to a refinement and improvement in weapons, ships, and technology, which prepared these regional states for future expansion.

The increased interaction with regions outside Europe ignited a major intellectual and artistic movement known as the **Renaissance**. Contact with the Islamic world, such as the Muslim territory al-Andalus in the Iberian Peninsula, reintroduced the ancient Greek and Roman texts that had been preserved and developed by Arabs. From the 1300s C.E. through the 1500s C.E., European painters, sculptors, and writers drew inspiration from the Greek and Roman classical past.

The study of these classical texts became known as Renaissance humanism or *studia humanitatis* (the “studies of humanity”). Renaissance humanism stressed the achievements of human beings. While medieval scholars and artists focused their works on revealing God, humanist scholars and artists attempted to reveal human nature. In Italy, artists such as Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo used perspective to create realistic masterpieces. Noble families, such as the Medici family, who had grown wealthy from lucrative trade with the Islamic and Byzantine cultures, became patrons of painters, sculptors, and scientists.

Chinese Exploration

After reestablishing authority over China, the Ming decided to refurbish their country’s large navy. From 1405 to 1433 C.E., they sponsored seven massive naval expeditions, in order to reinforce Chinese presence in the Indian Ocean, impose imperial control over trade, and impress foreign peoples with the authority of the Ming dynasty.

The mariner Zheng He led these expeditions. His first trip alone involved 28,000 troops. Zheng He sailed to Southeast Asia, India, the Persian Gulf, Arabia, and East Africa. Zheng He dispensed and received gifts throughout these travels. However, Confucian officials convinced the Chinese emperor that the voyages were too expensive and unprofitable, especially because of renewed concern over the northern Mongol border. Thus, in 1433 C.E., the voyages ended, Zheng He’s records were destroyed, and the ships were allowed to rot.

European Exploration

In the 1400s C.E., the ideas of the Renaissance inspired some Europeans to explore. These explorations were not diplomatic, but instead focused on profits, the spread of Christianity, and the desire for adventure. The goods from the East, such as spices, which Europeans desired were very expensive because of the long overland journey between Asia and Europe.

However, what if Europeans could find their own route to Asia by sea and cut out the Muslim middlemen’s profits? The Portuguese were early leaders in exploration, under the leadership of Prince Henry the Navigator, who established Portuguese schools and sponsored expeditions along the West African coast.

Competition increased among European powers, and a race to dominate the seas began. This competition continued well into our next period, with the European involvement in the Indian Ocean trade and their encounter with the Americas.